Third Edition

MICHAEL SWAN

Fully Revised

Practical English Usage



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Michael Swan

PRACTICAL ENGLISH USAGE

Third Edition





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Dedication

To John Eckersley, who first encouraged my interest in this kind of thing.

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to all the people who have helped me with the preparation of this third edition. A large number of teachers in different countries were kind enough to respond to an enquiry asking how they felt Practical English Usage could be improved: their feedback was extremely helpful, and I am very much in their debt. I am also greatly indebted to David Baker, whose comments and suggestions have added very significantly to the accuracy and clarity of the book, and to Hideo Hibino and Kenji Kashino, who have contributed valuable advice on specific problems. Many other teachers and students - too many to name have taken the trouble to suggest ways in which particular entries could be improved; their input has benefited the book considerably. My use of the internet as a source of instances of authentic usage has been greatly facilitated by the kind assistance of Hiroaki Sato, of Senshu University, Japan, who made available his excellent software tool KwiconGugle. I must also reacknowledge my debt to Jonathan Blundell, Norman Coe, Michio Kawakami, Michael Macfarlane, Nigel Middlemiss, Keith Mitchell, Catherine Walter, Gareth Watkins, and the many other consultants and correspondents whose help and advice with the preparation of the first and second editions continue as an important contribution to the third.

Any pedagogic grammarian owes an enormous debt to the academic linguists on whose research he or she is parasitic. There is not enough space to mention all the scholars of the last hundred years or so on whose work I have drawn directly or indirectly, even if I had a complete record of my borrowings. But I must at least pay homage to two monumental reference works of the present generation: the *Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (Longman 1985), and the *Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*, by Huddleston, Pullum and others (Cambridge University Press 2002). Their authoritative accounts of the facts of English structure and usage constitute an essential source of information for anyone writing pedagogic grammar materials today.

Finally, it is with particular pleasure that I express my gratitude, once again, to the editorial, design and production team at Oxford University Press, whose professional expertise is matched only by their concern to make an author's task as trouble-free as possible.

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Introduction

The purpose of this book

English, like all languages, is full of problems for the foreign learner. Some of these points are easy to explain – for instance, the formation of questions, the difference between since and for, the meaning of after all. Other problems are more tricky, and cause difficulty even for advanced students and teachers. How exactly is the present perfect used? When do we use past tenses to be polite? What are the differences between at, on and in with expressions of place? We can say a chair leg – why not *a cat leg? When can we use the expression do so? When is the used with superlatives? Is unless the same as if not? What are the differences between come and go, between each and every, between big, large and great, between fairly, quite, rather and pretty? Is it correct to say There's three more bottles in the fridge? How do you actually say $3 \times 4 = 12$? And so on, and so on.

Practical English Usage is a guide to problems of this kind. It deals with over 600 points which regularly cause difficulty to foreign students of English. It will be useful, for example, to a learner who is not sure how to use a particular structure, or who has made a mistake and wants to find out why it is wrong. It will also be helpful to a teacher who is looking for a clear explanation of a difficult language point. There is very full coverage of grammar, as well as explanations of a large number of common vocabulary problems. There are also some entries designed to clarify more general questions (e.g. formality, slang, the nature of standard English and dialects) which students and teachers may find themselves concerned with.

Level

The book is intended for higher level students of English and for teachers. Being a reference book, it contains information at various levels, ranging from relatively simple points to quite advanced problems.

Organisation

Problems are mostly explained in short separate entries: the book is more like a dictionary than a grammar in form. This makes it possible to give a clear complete treatment of each point, and enables the user to concentrate just on the question that he or she needs information about. Entries that deal with related topics (e.g. different uses of a tense) are grouped where this is useful, but can be read separately. In longer entries, basic information is generally given first, followed by more detailed explanations and discussions of less important points. Entries are arranged alphabetically by title and numbered in sequence. A comprehensive Index (pages 624–658) shows where each point can be found (see 'How to find things', page x).

Approach and style

I have tried to make the presentation as practical as possible. Each entry contains an explanation of a problem, examples of correct usage, and (when this is useful) examples of typical mistakes. In some cases, an explanation may be somewhat different from that found in many learners' grammars; this is because

the rules traditionally given for certain points (e.g. conditionals or indirect speech) are not always accurate or helpful. Explanations are, as far as possible, in simple everyday language. Where it has been necessary to use grammatical terminology, I have generally preferred to use traditional terms that are simple and easy to understand, except where this would be seriously misleading. Some of these terms (e.g. future tense) would be regarded as unsatisfactory by academic grammarians, but I am not writing for specialists. There is a dictionary of the terminology used in the book on pages xvii–xxv.

The kind of English described

The explanations deal mainly with standard modern everyday British English, and are illustrated with realistic examples of current usage. Both explanations and examples have been thoroughly checked against large electronic databases ('corpora') of authentic spoken and written English. Stylistic differences (e.g. between formal and informal usage, or spoken and written language) are mentioned where this is appropriate. The few grammatical differences between British and American English are also described, and there is a good deal of information about other British-American differences, but the book is not intended as a systematic guide to American usage.

Correctness

If people say that a form is not 'correct', they can mean several different things. They may for instance be referring to a sentence like *I have seen her yesterday, which normally only occurs in the English of foreigners. They may be thinking of a usage like less people (instead of fewer people), which is common in standard English but regarded as wrong by some people. Or they may be talking about forms like *ain't or 'double negatives', which are used in speech by many British and American people, but which do not occur in the standard dialects and are not usually written. This book is mainly concerned with the first kind of 'correctness': the differences between British or American English and 'foreign' English. However, there is also information about cases of divided usage in standard English, and about a few important dialect forms. (For a discussion of different kinds of English, see 308–309.)

How important is correctness?

If someone makes too many mistakes in a foreign language, he or she can be difficult to understand, so a reasonable level of correctness is important. However, it is quite unnecessary to speak or write a language perfectly in order to communicate effectively (very few adults in fact achieve a perfect command of another language). Learners should aim to avoid serious mistakes (and a book like *Practical English Usage* will help considerably with this); but they should not become obsessed with correctness, or worry every time they make a mistake. Grammar is not the most important thing in the world!

What this book does not do

Practical English Usage is not a complete guide to the English language. As the title suggests, its purpose is practical: to give learners and their teachers the most important information they need in order to deal with common language problems. Within this framework, the explanations are as complete and accurate as I can make them. However it is not always helpful or possible in a book of this kind to deal with all the details of a complex structural point; so readers may well find occasional exceptions to some of the grammatical rules given here. Equally, the book does not aim to replace a dictionary. While it gives information about common problems with the use of a number of words, it does not attempt to describe other meanings or uses of the words beside those points that are selected for attention.

Other reference books

A book like this gives explanations of individual points of usage, but does not show how the separate points 'fit together'. Those who need a systematically organised account of the whole of English grammar should consult a book such as the Oxford Learner's Grammar, by John Eastwood (Oxford University Press), A Student's Grammar of the English Language, by Greenbaum and Quirk (Longman), or Collins Cobuild English Grammar (Collins). For a detailed treatment of English vocabulary, see the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, the Macmillan English Dictionary or the Collins Cobuild English Dictionary.

Changes in the third edition

English, like all languages, is changing, and British English is currently being quite strongly influenced by American English. Consequently, some usages which were unusual in standard British English a few decades ago have now become common – for example, the use of like as a conjunction (e.g. like I do), or the use of Do you have . . .? to ask about the immediate present (e.g. Do you have a light?). The third edition takes account of a number of changes of this kind, in order to give a fully up-to-date description of contemporary usage.

How to find things

The best way to find information about a particular point is to look in the Index on pages 624–658. (The overview on pages xi-xvi is intended only to give a general picture of the topics covered in the book; it is not a complete guide to the contents.) Most points are indexed under several different names, so it is not difficult to locate the entry you need. For instance, if you want to know why we say *I'm not used to driving on the left* instead of *I'm not used to drive on the left*, you can find the number of the section where this is explained by looking in the index under 'used', 'be used', 'to' or '-ing forms'. (On the other hand, it would obviously not be helpful to look under 'drive': the rule is a general one about the use of -ing forms after be used to, not about the verb drive in particular.)

Contents Overview

This overview gives a general picture of the topics covered in the book; it is not a complete guide to the contents. References are to entry numbers. To find information about a particular point, consult the Index on pages 624-658,

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Language terminology

The following words and expressions are used in this book to talk about grammar and other aspects of language.

- abstract noun (the opposite of a concrete noun) the name of something which we experience as an idea, not by seeing, touching etc. Examples: doubt; height; geography.
- active An active verb form is one like breaks, told, will help (not like is broken, was told, will be helped, which are passive verb forms). The subject of an active verb is usually the person or thing that does the action, or that is responsible for what happens.
- adjective a word like green, hungry, impossible, which is used when we describe people, things, events etc. Adjectives are used in connection with nouns and pronouns. Examples: a green apple; She's hungry.
- adverb a word like tomorrow, once, badly, there, also, which is used to say, for example, when, where or how something happens. There are very many kinds of adverbs with different functions: see 22–27.
- adverb particle a short adverb like up, out, off, often used as part of a phrasal verb (e.g. clean up, look out, tell off).
- affirmative an affirmative sentence is one that makes a positive statement not a negative sentence or a question. Compare *I agree* (affirmative); *I don't agree* (negative).
- agent In a passive sentence, the agent is the expression that says who or what an action is done by. Example: This picture was probably painted by a child.
- article A, an and the are called 'articles'. A/an is called the 'indefinite article'; the is called the 'definite article'.
- aspect Grammarians prefer to talk about progressive and perfective aspect, rather than progressive and perfect tense, since these forms express other ideas besides time (e.g. continuity, completion). However, in this book the term tense is often used to include aspect, for the sake of simplicity.
- attributive Adjectives placed before nouns are in 'attributive position'. Examples: a green shirt; my noisy son. See also predicative.
- auxiliary verb a verb like be, have, do which is used with another verb to make tenses, passive forms etc. Examples: She was writing; Where have you put it? See also modal auxiliary verb.
- clause a part of a sentence which contains a subject and a verb, usually joined to the rest of a sentence by a conjunction. Example: Mary said that she was tired. (The word clause is also sometimes used for structures containing participles or infinitives with no subject or conjunction. Example: Not knowing what to do, I telephoned Robin.)
- cleft sentence a sentence in which special emphasis is given to one part (e.g. the subject or the object) by using a structure with it or what. Examples: It was you that caused the accident; What I need is a drink.
- collective noun a singular word for a group. Examples: family; team.
- comparative the form of an adjective or adverb made with -er (e.g. older, faster); also the structure more + adjective/adverb, used in the same way (e.g. more useful, more politely).

- complement (1) a part of a sentence that gives more information about the subject (after be, seem and some other verbs), or, in some structures, about the object. Examples: You're the right person to help; She looks very kind; They elected him President.
 - (2) a structure or words needed after a noun, adjective, verb or preposition to complete its meaning. Examples: the intention to travel; full of water, try phoning; down the street.
- compound a compound noun, verb, adjective, preposition etc is one that is made of two or more parts. Examples: bus driver; get on with; one-eyed.
- concrete noun (the opposite of an abstract noun) the name of something which we can experience by seeing, touching etc. Examples: cloud; petrol; raspberry.
- conditional (1) a verb form made by using the auxiliary would (also should after I and we). Examples: I would run; She would sing; We should think.

 (2) a clause or sentence containing if (or a word with a similar meaning), and perhaps containing a conditional verb form. Examples: If you try you'll understand; I should be surprised if she knew; What would you have done if the train had been late?
- conjunction a word like and, but, although, because, when, if, which can be used to join clauses together. Example: I rang because I was worried.
- consonant for example, the letters b, c, d, f g and their usual sounds (see phonetic alphabet, page xxx). See also **vowel**.

continuous the same as progressive.

- contraction a short form in which a subject and an auxiliary verb, or an auxiliary verb and the word *not*, are joined together into one word. Contractions are also made with non-auxiliary be and have. Examples: I'm; who've: John'll: can't.
- co-ordinate clause one of two or more main or subordinate clauses of equal 'value' that are connected. Examples: Shall I come to your place or would you like to come to mine?; It's cooler today and there's a bit of a wind; she said that it was late and that she was tired. See also main clause, subordinate clause.

copular verb the same as link verb.

countable noun a noun like car, dog, idea, which can have a plural form, and can be used with the indefinite article alan. See also uncountable noun.

declarative question a question which has the same grammatical form as a statement. Example: *That's your girlfriend?*

definite article the.

defining relative see identifying relative.

demonstrative this, these, that, those.

determiner one of a group of words that begin noun phrases. Determiners include alan, the, my, this, each, either, several, more, both, all.

direct object see object.

- direct speech speech reported 'directly', in the words used by the original speaker (more or less), without any changes of tense, pronouns etc. Example: She looked at me and said 'This is my money'. See also indirect speech.
- discourse marker a word or expression which shows the connection between what is being said and the wider context. A discourse marker may, for example, connect a sentence with what comes before or after, or it may show the speaker's attitude to what he/she is saying. Examples: on the other hand; frankly, as a matter of fact.

- duration how long something lasts. The preposition for can be used with an expression of time to indicate duration.
- ellipsis leaving out words when their meaning can be understood from the context. Examples: (It's a) Nice day, isn't it?; It was better than I expected (it would be).
- emphasis giving special importance to one part of a word or sentence (for example by pronouncing it more loudly; by writing it in capital letters; by using do in an affirmative clause; by using special word order).
- emphatic pronoun reflexive pronoun (myself, yourself etc) used to emphasise a noun or pronoun. Examples: I'll tell him myself, I wouldn't sell this to the king himself. See also reflexive pronoun.
- ending something added to the end of a word, e.g. -er, -ing, -ed. first person see person.
- formal the style used when talking politely to strangers, on special occasions, in some literary writing, in business letters, etc. For example, commence is a more formal word than start.
- **frequency** Adverbs of frequency say how often something happens. Examples: often; never, daily, occasionally.
- fronting moving a part of a clause to the beginning in order to give it special emphasis. Example: Jack I like, but his wife I can't stand.
- full verb see main verb.
- **future** a verb form made with the auxiliary shall/will + infinitive without to. Examples; I shall arrive; Will it matter?
- future perfect a verb form made with shall/will + have + past participle. Example: I will have finished by lunchtime.
- future progressive (or future continuous) a verb form made with shall/will + be + . . . ing. Example: I will be needing the car this evening.
- gender the use of different grammatical forms to show the difference between masculine, feminine and neuter, or between human and non-human. Examples: he; she; it; who; which.
- gerund the form of a verb ending in -ing, used like a noun (for example, as the subject or object of a sentence). Examples: Smoking is bad for you; I hate getting up early. See also present participle.
- gradable Pretty, hard or cold are gradable adjectives: things can be more or less pretty, hard or cold. Adverbs of degree (like rather, very) can be used with gradable words. Perfect or dead are not gradable words: we do not usually say that something is more or less perfect, or very dead.
- grammar the rules that show how words are combined, arranged or changed to show certain kinds of meaning.
- hypothetical Some words and structures (e.g. modal verbs, if-clauses) are used for hypothetical situations that is to say, situations which may not happen, or are imaginary. Example: What would you do if you had six months free?
- identifying (or defining) relative clause a relative clause which identifies a noun which tells us which person or thing is being talked about. Example: There's the woman who tried to steal your cat. (The relative clause who tried to steal your cat identifies the woman it tells us which woman is meant.) See also non-identifying relative clause.
- imperative the form of a verb used to give orders, make suggestions, etc. Examples: Bring me a pen; Have a good holiday.

indefinite article a/an.

indirect object see object.

- it part of our own sentence (so that the tenses, word order, and pronouns and other words may be different from those used by the original speaker). Compare: He said 'I'm tired' (the original speaker's words are reported in direct speech) and He said that he was tired (the original speaker's words are reported in indirect speech).
- infinitive the 'base' form of a word (usually with to), used after another verb, after an adjective or noun, or as the subject or complement of a sentence. Examples: I want to go home; It's easy to sing; I've got a plan to start a business; To err is human, to forgive divine.
- informal the style used in ordinary conversation, personal letters etc, when there is no special reason to speak politely or carefully. I'll is more informal than I will; get is used mostly in an informal style; start is a more informal word than commence.
- -ing form the form of a verb ending in -ing. Examples: finding; keeping; running. See also gerund, present participle.
- initial at the beginning. Sometimes is an adverb that can go in initial position in a sentence. Example: Sometimes I wish I had a different job.
- intensifying making stronger, more emphatic. Very and terribly are intensifying adverbs.
- interrogative Interrogative structures and words are used for asking questions. In an interrogative sentence, there is an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary be) before the subject (e.g. Can you swim?; Are you ready?). What, who and where are interrogative words.
- intonation the 'melody' of spoken language: the way the musical pitch of the voice rises and falls to show meaning, sentence structure or mood.
- intransitive An intransitive verb is one that cannot have an object or be used in the passive. Examples: smile; fall; come; go.
- inversion a structure in which an auxiliary or other verb comes before its subject. Examples: Never had she seen such a mess; Here comes John.
- irregular not following the normal rules. or not having the usual form. An irregular verb has a past tense and/or past participle that does not end in -ed (e.g. swam, taken); children is an irregular plural.
- link verb (or copular verb) be, seem, feel and other verbs which link a subject to a complement that describes it. Examples: My mother is in Jersey; He seems unhappy; This feels soft.
- main clause, subordinate clause Some sentences consist of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. A subordinate clause acts like a part of the main clause (e.g. like a subject, or an object, or an adverbial). Examples: Where she is doesn't matter (the subordinate clause Where she is is the subject of the main clause); I told you that I didn't care (the subordinate clause that I didn't care is the direct object in the main clause); You'll find friends wherever you go acts like an adverb in the main clause: compare You'll find friends anywhere).

- main verb (or full verb) A verb phrase often contains one or more auxiliary verbs together with a main verb. The main verb is the verb which expresses the central meaning; auxiliary verbs mostly add grammatical information (for instance they may show that a verb is progressive, future, perfect or passive). Examples: is going; will explain; has arrived; would have been forgotten.
- manner an adverb of manner describes how something happens. Examples: well; suddenly; fast.
- mid-position If an adverb is in mid-position in a sentence, it is with the verb. Example: I have never been to Africa.
- misrelated participle (also called hanging or dangling participle) a participle which appears to have a subject which is not its own. Example: Looking out of the window, the mountains appeared very close. (This seems to say that the mountains were looking out of the window.) The structure is usually avoided in careful writing because of the danger of misunderstanding.
- modal auxiliary verb one of the verbs can, could, may, might, must, will, shall, would, should, ought.
- modify An adjective is said to 'modify' the noun it is with: it adds to or defines its meaning. Examples: a fine day; my new job. An adverb can modify a verb (e.g. run fast), an adjective (e.g. completely ready) or other words or expressions. In sports car, the first noun modifies the second.
- **negative** a negative sentence is one in which the word *not* is used with the verb. Example: *I didn't know*.
- **nominal relative clause** a relative clause (usually introduced by *what*) which acts as the subject, object or complement of a sentence. Example: *I gave him what he needed*.
- non-affirmative (also called non-assertive) The words some, somebody, somewhere etc are used most often in affirmative sentences. In other kinds of sentence they are often replaced by any, anybody, anywhere etc. Words like any, anybody etc are called 'non-affirmative' or non-assertive' forms. Other non-affirmative forms are yet and ever.
- non-identifying (or non-defining) relative clause a relative clause which does not identify the noun it refers to (because we already know which person or thing is meant). Example: There's Hannah Smith, who tried to steal my cat. (The relative clause, who tried to steal my cat, does not identify the person she is already identified by the name Hannah Smith.) See also identifying relative clause.
- noun a word like oil, memory, arm, which can be used with an article. Nouns are most often the names of people or things. Personal names (e.g. George) and place names (e.g. Birmingham) are called 'proper nouns'; they are usually used without articles.
- **noun phrase** a group of words (e.g. article + adjective + noun) which acts as the subject, object or complement in a clause. Example: the last bus.
- number the way in which differences between singular and plural are shown grammatically. The differences between house and houses, mouse and mice, this and these are differences of number.

- object a noun phrase or pronoun that normally comes after the verb in an active clause. The direct object most often refers to a person or thing (or people or things) affected by the action of the verb. In the sentence Take the dog for a walk, the dog is the direct object. The indirect object usually refers to a person (or people) who receive(s) the direct object. In the sentence Ann gave me a watch, the indirect object is me, and the direct object is a watch. See also subject.
- participle see present participle and past participle.
- participle clause a clause-like structure which contains a participle, not a verb tense. Examples: Discouraged by his failure, he resigned from his job; Having a couple of hours to spare, I went to see a film.
- passive A passive verb form is made with be + past participle. Examples: is broken; was told; will be helped (but not breaks, told, will help, which are active verb forms). The subject of a passive verb form is usually the person or thing that is affected by the action of the verb. Compare: They sent Lucas to prison for five years (active) and Lucas was sent to prison for five years (passive). See also active.
- past participle a verb form like broken, gone, stopped, which can be used to form perfect tenses and passives, or as an adjective. (The meaning is not necessarily past, in spite of the name.)
- past perfect a verb form made with had + past participle. Examples: I had forgotten; The children had arrived; She had been working; It had been raining. The first two examples are simple past perfect; the last two (with had been + . . . ing) are past perfect progressive (or continuous).
- past progressive (or continuous) a verb form made with was/were + . . . ing. Examples: I was going; They were stopping.

past simple see simple past.

- **perfect** a verb form made with the auxiliary have + past participle. Examples: I have forgotten; She had failed; having arrived; to have finished.
- perfect conditional should/would have + past participle. Examples: I should/would have agreed; He would have known.
- perfect infinitive (to) have + past participle. Example: to have arrived.
- person the way in which, in grammar, we show the difference between the person(s) speaking (first person), the person(s) spoken to (second person), and the person, people or thing(s) spoken about (third person). The differences between I and you, or between am, are and is, are differences of person.

personal pronouns the words I, me, you, he, him etc.

- phrase two or more words that function together as a group. Examples: dead tired; the silly old woman; would have been repaired; in the country.
- phrasal verb a verb form that is made up of two parts: verb + adverb particle. Examples: fill up; run over; take in.
- plural grammatical form used to refer to more than one person or thing. Examples: we; buses; children; are; many; these. See also singular.
- **possessive** a form used to show possession and similar ideas. Examples: *John's*; *our*; *mine*.
- possessive pronoun My, your, his, her etc are possessive pronouns (they stand for 'the speaker's', 'the hearer's', 'that person's' etc). Mine, yours, his, hers etc are also possessive pronouns, for the same reason. My, your etc are used before nouns, so they are not only pronouns, but also determiners. (They are often called 'possessive adjectives', but this is not correct.) Mine, yours etc are used without following nouns.

- **postmodifier** a word that comes after the word which it modifies, e.g. *invited* in *The people invited all came late*. See also **premodifier**.
- predicative Adjectives placed after a verb like be, seem, look are in predicative position. Examples: The house is enormous; She looks happy. See also attributive.
- prefix a form like ex-, anti- or un-, which can be added to the front of a word to give an additional or different meaning. Examples: ex-wife, anti-British, unhappy. See also suffix.
- premodifier a word that comes before the word which it modifies, e.g. invited in an invited audience. See also postmodifier.
- preparatory subject, preparatory object When the subject of a sentence is an infinitive or a clause, we usually put it towards the end of the sentence and use the pronoun it as a preparatory subject. Example: It is important to get enough sleep. It can also be used as a preparatory object in certain structures. Example: He made it clear that he disagreed. There is used as a kind of preparatory subject in there is . . . and similar structures. Example: There is somebody at the door.
- **preposition** a word like on, off, of, into, normally followed by a noun or pronoun.
- prepositional verb a verb form that is made up of two parts: verb form + preposition. Examples: insist on; care for; listen to.
- present participle the form of a verb ending in -ing, used as an adjective, a verb or part of a verb. Examples: a crying baby; Opening his newspaper, he started to read; She was running. (The meaning is not necessarily present, in spite of the name.) See also gerund.
- present perfect a verb form made with have/has + past participle. Examples: I have forgotten; The children have arrived; I've been working all day; It has been raining. The first two examples are simple present perfect; the last two (with have been + . . .ing) are present perfect progressive (or present perfect continuous).
- present progressive (or continuous) a verb form made with am/are/is + ...ing. Examples: I am going; She is staying for two weeks.

 present simple see simple present.
- progressive (or continuous) A verb form made with the auxiliary be + . . . ing. Examples: to be going; We were wondering; I'll be seeing you.
- progressive (or continuous) infinitive a form like to be going; to be waiting. pronoun a word like it, yourself, their, which is used instead of a more precise noun or noun phrase (like the cat, Peter's self, the family's). The word pronoun can also be used for a determiner when this includes the meaning of a following noun which has been left out. Example: I'll take these.
- proper noun or proper name a noun (most often with no article) which is the name of a particular person, place, organisation etc. Examples: Andrew, Brazil; the European Union.
- quantifier a determiner like many, few, little, several, which is used in a noun phrase to show how much or how many we are talking about.
- question tag an expression like do you? or isn't it?, consisting of an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary be or have) + pronoun subject, put on to the end of a sentence. Examples: You don't eat meat, do you?; It's a nice day, isn't it?
- reflexive pronoun myself yourself, himself etc. Example: I cut myself shaving this morning. See also emphatic pronoun.

- regular following the normal rules or having the usual form. Hoped is a regular past tense; cats is a regular plural. See also irregular.
- relative clause a clause which modifies a noun, usually introduced by a relative pronoun like who or which. Example: I like people who like me. See also identifying relative clause, non-identifying relative clause.
- relative pronoun a pronoun used to connect a relative clause to its noun. Who, whom, whose, which and that can be used as relative pronouns, and sometimes also when, where and why. Examples: There's the man who wants to buy my car; This is the room which needs painting; Do you remember the day when we met?
- reply question a question (similar in structure to a question tag) used to reply to a statement, for instance to express interest. Example: I've been invited to spend the weekend in London.~ Have you, dear?
- second person see person.
- sentence a group of words that expresses a statement, command, question or exclamation. A sentence consists of one or more clauses, and usually has at least one subject and verb. In writing, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark.
- short answer an answer consisting of a subject and an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary be or have). Examples: Has anybody phoned the police?~John has.; Who's ready for more?~I am.
- simple past (or past simple) a past verb form that has no auxiliary verb in the affirmative. Examples: I stopped; You heard; We knew.
- simple present (or present simple) a present verb form that has no auxiliary verb in the affirmative. Examples: He goes there often; I know; I like chocolate. simple a verb form that is not progressive.
- singular a grammatical form used to talk about one person, thing, etc, or about an uncountable quantity or mass. Examples: me; bus; water; is; much; this. See also plural.
- slang a word, expression or special use of language found mainly in very informal speech, often in the usage of particular groups of people. Examples: thick (= stupid); lose one's cool (= get upset); sparks (= electrician).
- split infinitive a structure in which an adverb comes between to and the rest of the infinitive. Example: to easily understand. Some people consider split infinitives 'incorrect', but they are common in standard usage.
- standard A standard form of a language is the one that is most generally accepted for use in government, the law, business, education and literature. *I'm not* is standard English; *I ain't* is non-standard.
- statement a sentence which gives information; not a question. Examples: I'm cold; Philip didn't come home last night.
- stress the way in which one or more parts of a word, phrase or sentence are made to sound more important than the rest, by using a louder voice and/or higher pitch. In the word particular, the main stress is on the second syllable (particular); in the sentence Where's the new secretary? there are three stresses (WHERE'S the NEW SEcretary?).
- strong form, weak form Certain words can be pronounced in two ways: slowly and carefully with the vowel that is written (strong form), or with a quicker pronunciation with the vowel /ə/ or /ɪ/ (weak form). Examples: can (/kæn/, /kən/), was (/wpz/, /wəz/), for (/fɔ:(r)/, /fə(r)/).

- subject a noun phrase or pronoun that normally comes before the verb in an affirmative clause. It often says (in an active clause) who or what does the action that the verb refers to. Examples: Helen gave me a wonderful smile; Oil floats on water. See also object.
- subjunctive a verb form (not very common in British English) used in certain structures. Examples: If I were you . . .; It's important that he be informed immediately; We prefer that he pay in cash.
- subordinate clause a clause which functions as part of another clause, for example as subject, object or adverbial in the main clause of a sentence. Examples: I thought that you understood; What I need is a drink; I'll follow you wherever you go. See also clause, main clause.
- suffix a form like -ology, -able or -ese, which can be added to the end of a word to give an additional or different meaning. Examples: climatology; understandable; Chinese. See also prefix.
- superlative the form of an adjective or adverb made with the suffix -est (e.g. oldest, fastest); also the structure most + adjective/adverb, used in the same way (e.g. most intelligent, most politely).
- **swearword** a taboo word used (usually with a change of meaning) to express strong emotion or emphasis. Example: *Fuck!*
- syllable The word cat has one syllable, cattle has two, cataract has three and category has four. A syllable normally has a vowel, and usually one or more consonants before and/or after it. Sometimes the consonant sounds l, m and n can act as syllables (for instance in the words bottle /'botl/, capitalism /'kæpītəlizm/, button /'bʌtn/).
- taboo word a word (e.g. fuck) connected with a subject (such as sex) which is not talked about freely, so that some of its vocabulary is considered shocking. Taboo words are not used in formal speech or writing, and are avoided altogether by many people. See also swearword.
- tag a short phrase (e.g. pronoun subject + auxiliary verb) added on to the end of a sentence, especially in speech. Examples: He likes to talk, John does; You can't swim, can you?; Very noisy, those kids. See also question tag.
- tense a verb form that shows the time of an action, event or state. Examples: will go; is sitting; saw.
- third person see person.
- transitive a transitive verb is one that can have an object. Examples: eat (a meal); drive (a car); give (a present). See also intransitive.
- uncountable noun a noun which has no plural form and cannot normally be used with the article alan. Examples: mud; rudeness; furniture.
- verb a word like ask, wake, play, be, can, which can be used with a subject to form the basis of a clause. In clauses, verbs often consist of an auxiliary verb + infinitive or participle (e.g. will go; has spoken). Most verbs refer to actions, events or states. See also auxiliary verb, modal auxiliary verb, verb phrase.
- verb phrase a verb that has more than one part. Example: would have been forgotten.
- vowel the letters a, e, i, o, u and their combinations, and their usual sounds (see phonetic alphabet, page xxx). See also consonant.
- weak form see strong form.

Don't say it! 130 common mistakes

35 basic mistakes to avoid. Check in the sections to see why they're wrong.

don't say/write	say/write s	ee section
Look – it rains.	Look - it's raining	461-464
It's often raining here.	It often rains here.	461-464
When I was 20 I was smoking.	When I was 20 I smoked.	422
I have seen Louis yesterday.	I saw Louis yesterday.	456
We're living here since April.	We've been living here since Ap	oril. 460
I'll phone you when I will arrive.		212
I'm not believing him.	I don't believe him.	471
I am born in Chicago.	I was born in Chicago.	108
My sister has 15 years.	My sister is 15 (years old).	32
I have cold in this house.	I am cold in this house.	92
I can to swim.	I can swim.	121
I must see the dentist yesterday.	I had to see the dentist yesterd	lay. 358
I want go home.	I want to go home.	613
I came here for study English.	I came here to study English.	289
I drove there without to stop.	I drove there without stopping	g. 298
Where I can buy stamps?	Where can I buy stamps?	480
Is ready my new office?	Is my new office ready?	480
I'm no asleep.	I'm not asleep.	382
She looked, but she didn't see	she didn't see anything. /	370
nothing.	she saw nothing.	
Where is station?	Where is the station?	62
My sister is photographer.	My sister is a photographer.	62
You speak a very good English.	You speak very good English.	149
The life is difficult.	Life is difficult.	68
I haven't got some free time today.	I haven't got any free time too	lay. 547
Everybody were late.	Everybody was late.	548
It is more cold today.	It is colder today.	137
It's too much hot in this house.	It's too hot in this house.	595
The man which lives here is from Greece.	The man who lives here is from Greece.	494
The people in this town is	The people in this town are	524
very friendly.	very friendly.	5
She never listens me.	She never listens to me.	449
We went at the seaside on Sunday.	We went to the seaside on Sunday.	80
I like very much skiing.	I very much like skiing. / I like skiing very much.	611
This soup isn't enough hot.	This soup isn't hot enough.	187
I gave to her my address.	I gave her my address.	610
I have done a mistake.	I have made a mistake.	160

35 mistakes that intermediate students often make. Check in the sections to see why they're wrong.

don't say/write	say/write	see	section
I promise I pay you tomorrow.	I promise I'll pay you tomorrov	٧.	217
This is the first time I'm here.	the first time I've been here		591
I've been here since three days.	for three days.		208
If I'll have time, I'll go home.	If I have time,		257
If I knew the price, I will tell you.	I would tell you.		258
He said me that he was Chinese.	He told me that he was Chines	e.	504
She told me she has a headache.	She told me she had a headach	ıe.	275
There's the man that I work for him.	There's the man that I work for	r .	494
I've told you all what I know.	all (that) I know.		494
Although it was late, but she went out.	Although it was late, she went out.		511
You have better to see the doctor.	You had better see the doctor.		230
I use to play tennis at weekends.	I play tennis at weekends.		604
It can rain this evening.	It may/might/could rain		345
My parents wanted that I study.	My parents wanted me to study	y.	283
You must stop to smoke.	stop smoking.		299
I look forward to see you.	I look forward to seeing you.		298
I'm boring in the lessons.	I'm bored in the lessons.		409
He has much money.	He has a lot of / plenty of mon	ey.	357
Most of people agree with me.	Most people		356
I looked at me in the mirror.	I looked at myself		493
We waited during six hours.	for six hours.		167
I like eating chocolate milk.	milk chocolate.		385
Come here and look at that paper.	Come here and look at this par	er.	589
We go there every Saturdays.	every Saturday.		193
Which is the biggest city of the world?	the biggest city in the world	[?	139
I'm thinking to change my job.	I'm thinking of changing my jo	b.	588
Can you give me an information?	some information?		148
He's married with a doctor.	He's married to a doctor.		44 9
Can you mend this until Tuesday?	by Tuesday?		602
There's a hotel in front of our house.	opposite our house.		402
I like warm countries, as Spain.	warm countries, like Spain.		326
Please explain me what you want.	explain to me		198
When you come, take your bike.	bring your bike.		112
My brother has got a new work.	a new job.		148
He's Dutch, or better Belgian.	He's Dutch, or rather Belgian.		157

Even advanced students make mistakes. Here are 35. Check in the sections to see why they're wrong.

don't say/write	say/write	see section
I'll ask you in case I need help.	I'll ask you if I need help.	271
I object to tell them my age.	I object to telling them my age	298
I like the 60s music.	I like 60s music. / the music of	
ten thousand, a hundred and six	ten thousand, one hundred	389
'Who's that?' ~ 'He's John.'	'It's John.'	428
I don't like to be shouted.	I don't like to be shouted at.	416
It's ages since she's arrived.	It's ages since she arrived.	522
The police is looking for him.	The police are looking	524
Prices are surely rising fast.	Prices are certainly rising fast.	573
I have big respect for her ideas.	great respect	106
I don't like nowadays fashions.	today's/modern fashions.	388
She passed her exam, what surprised everybody.	which surprised everybody.	494
I've good knowledge of German.	a good knowledge of Germa	an. 149
Finally! Where have you been?	At last!	204
I'll be home since 3 o' clock.	from 3 o' clock.	308
We waited one and a half hour.	one and a half hours.	231
It's time they go home.	It's time they went home.	306
I'll see you a few days later.	in a few days.	315
All along the centuries, there have been wars.	All through the centuries	45
I want a completely other colour.	a completely different colo	our. 54
Let's go and have coffee to Marcel's.	at Marcel's.	80
That's mine - I saw it at first!	I saw it first!	84
Switzerland is among Germany, France, Austria and Italy.	between Germany, France, Austria and Italy.	105
According to me, it's a bad film.	In my opinion / I think	8
It was a too good party to miss.	too good a party	14
Whole Paris was celebrating.	The whole of Paris	40
I nearly wish I'd stayed at home.	I almost wish	43
One speaks Italian in my town.	We/They speak	396
The girl wants an own room.	her own room.	405
Couldn't you help me, please?	Could you? / You couldn't . could you?	
I'll try to know when it starts.	I'll try to find out when it start	s. 313
I love this so beautiful country.	this country – it's so beauti	
It's getting winter.	It's getting to be winter.	223
Our flat is decorated this week.	is being decorated	412
The Mont Blanc is 4808m high.	Mont Blanc is	70